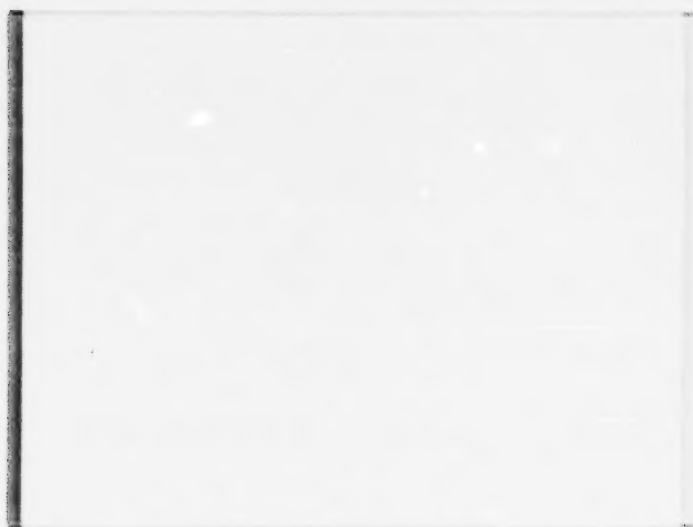




Canadian
Advisory Council
on the Status of Women



Conseil
consultatif canadien
sur la situation de la femme

BACKGROUND PAPER

WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS:

BUILDING A STRONGER CANADIAN ECONOMY

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INTRODUCTION

Who are the women entrepreneurs in Canada?

Recent studies on women owner-managers in Canada indicate that female entrepreneurship is making new strides in most provinces. In 1982, Helen Kohl¹ maintained that Canadian women entrepreneurs and their businesses controlled approximately one third of the retail market with sales over \$400 million. Cook and Widerman reported for the same year that Canadian women managed about 52% of the country's 60,000 new companies.

One of the problems in entrepreneurship studies is defining what is meant by "entrepreneur". Defining a "man entrepreneur" is just as difficult as defining a "woman entrepreneur", and even defining the notion of "small business", to which entrepreneurs are so closely connected, is no mean task. Revenue Canada categorizes a small business as any company with sales of less than \$2 million and fewer than 50 employees.² By this definition, small firms constitute 97% of Canadian companies and employ 42% of the country's labour force. In other words, men and women entrepreneurs manage 97% of Canadian companies.

One of the pioneers of entrepreneurship studies, McClelland (1971), defined an entrepreneur as a person *who controls production not intended for his or her personal consumption*. This kind of definition is now too broad to adequately describe most modern companies (even small firms), as production is often controlled by someone other than the owner.

Other researchers (Bruce, 1976; Collom, 1982) have defined an entrepreneur as an individual *whose decisions directly determine the fate of a commercial enterprise over which he or she exerts control by reason of shareholding and in which he or she operates as an executive policy maker*. This definition of an entrepreneur would exclude "femmes collaboratrices" (women who work in their husbands' businesses), who, even if they started the business with their spouses and work there 40 hours a week, often officially have no shares in the firm. In 1981, there were 93,759 "femmes collaboratrices" in

Quebec and 442,788 throughout Canada.³ More than 85% of these women earned no salary, even though 30% of them worked in the company more than 40 hours a week.⁴ A 1985 study on women in the agricultural sector in eastern Ontario indicated that it would cost up to \$1,000 a week to replace a "femme collaboratrice" in this sector.⁵ These figures are too high to exclude "femmes collaboratrices" from this paper's definition of entrepreneurship, especially as they often take just as many — if not more — financial risks as their spouses, who are officially the sole owners. For this reason, they have been included in this study.

Another phenomenon is emerging: women are creating their own paid jobs (other than housework) within their homes. These women are growing in number and consider themselves to be self-employed. They often give up the security of a job and a good pension plan and spend all of their personal savings on the new equipment needed to produce at home. Several analysts do not consider these women to be entrepreneurs, as their jobs are not connected to a firm with legal status and they have no staff. They are seen, rather, as independent workers. Studies increasingly show, however, that most women do take on employees once contracts and work start coming in. They then proceed to register or incorporate their companies in order to enjoy tax and other benefits. At what point can these women be considered entrepreneurs? Several researchers, including the author, believe that they are entrepreneurs from the moment they establish long-term plans, and for this reason they will be considered full-fledged entrepreneurs in this study (even though the various researchers cited have not included them in the statistical tables presented in this text).

In this study, a woman entrepreneur will be defined as *a woman who has, alone or with one or more partners, started up, bought or inherited a business, is assuming the related financial, administrative, and social risks and responsibilities, and is participating in the firm's day-to-day management.* Such women are also known as women owner-managers and women business owners.

WHAT IS KNOWN ABOUT WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS?

Purpose and objectives of this study

The objectives of this document are:

- to review the various studies conducted on Canadian women entrepreneurs and describe how these women acquire their businesses;
- to describe women-owned businesses, their legal status, sales volume, business structure, business type, number of years in operation, number of employees, start-up capital, sources of financing, profitability, market share, and initial barriers;
- to develop a profile of women entrepreneurs based on reasons for business entry, age, marital status, education, number of children, family history of entrepreneurship, previous work experience, management skills, relationships with the environment, traits important for success, different types of women entrepreneurs, and professional development; and
- to identify the new needs of established and aspiring women entrepreneurs, examine the options available to them and the various innovations in the field, and suggest what action can be taken and what the future might have in store for Canadian women owner-managers.

Research on female entrepreneurship

The first Canadian studies on female entrepreneurship were conducted in the late 1970s (Lavoie, 1979; Winter, 1980). Studies by Schreier (1975), Schwartz (1976), and Schell and Weiman (1977) had already been done in the United States. In the 1980s, numerous studies were carried out: Collom, 1982 (Ontario); Suek et al., 1983 (Manitoba); Stevenson, 1984 (the Maritimes); Lavoie, 1984 (Quebec); Rose-Lizée, 1984 (Quebec); White, 1984 (Ontario); ministère de

l'Industrie et du Commerce (MIC), 1985 (Quebec); B.C. Women's Programs, 1986 (British Columbia); Lee-Gosselin and Grisé, 1986 (Quebec); Lavoie, 1986 (Quebec); ministère de l'Industrie et du Commerce (MIC), 1986 (Quebec); and the Department of Tourism and Small Business, 1986 (Saskatchewan). In order to identify the distinguishing traits of women entrepreneurs, tables comparing the results of these studies are provided throughout this paper. Although the studies used different scales to present their results, these tables will help focus on the similarities and differences of women entrepreneurs in various Canadian provinces.⁶

The history and growth of female entrepreneurship

In the early colonial days, most small firms (fabrics, clothing, furs, liquor, utensils, etc.) were run by women without their spouses, who were often off at war protecting their possessions or exploring the new land. Ruth Rose-Lizée (1984) has summed up the historical development of "femmes collaboratrices" associations (see Table 1).

Table 1. Growth of Canadian "femmes collaboratrices" associations

1897	First Women's Institute is founded in Stoney Creek, a small village in Ontario.	
1905	Ontario has 69 Women's Institutes with total membership of 7,018.	
1915	More than 800 local groups exist across Canada, including 13 in Quebec.	
1915	First association of farm women is founded in Quebec.	
1944	Membership in farm women's associations totals more than 49,000.	
1981	Total number of "femmes collaboratrices":	
	Canada	Quebec
	Agriculture	169,368 25,613
	Small Business	266,522 66,628
	Professional	6,898 1,518
	Total	442,788 93,759

Source: Statistiques financières des sociétés, 1982, publication 61-207, in Rose-Lizée, 1984, p. 135.

In September 1984, the "fichier central des entreprises manufacturières du Québec" (Quebec business information centre) listed 49,000 manufacturing firms (MIC, 1986), 9,500 of which had at least one woman owner-manager.⁷ Data from the other provinces is, unfortunately, too recent to permit a similar description of the evolution of businesswomen groups in other parts of the country. However, it is known that, in British Columbia, in 1984-1985, the number of self-employed women rose by 8,000. In the same year, women made up 30% of that province's total self-employed population. Between 1975 and 1984, the number of men owner-managers increased by 51%, whereas the number of women entrepreneurs rose by 119%.

Because significant data on the number of Canadian women owner-managers is not yet available, it is difficult to get an accurate idea of how many there are, what sectors they operate in, and whether they are successful. The few Canadian statistics available are no more revealing with respect to men entrepreneurs. Revenue Canada figures,⁸ however, indicate that between 1972 and 1983 the number of women sole proprietors rose by 140.3%, from 61,864 to 148,636, whereas the number of men sole proprietors went up by only 10.7%, from 315,872 to 349,496. It should be noted that these statistics do not provide a true picture of the number of entrepreneurs, because they include only registered companies (not incorporated companies) whose owners are required to submit a personal income tax statement, thus making it possible to count them. Owners of incorporated businesses and of partnerships and cooperatives do not appear in the Revenue Canada figures, but Canadian studies show that these firms may constitute an average of about 30% of Canadian companies.⁹ It can therefore be estimated that, in 1983, the number of women-owned businesses may have been 212,337 [148,636 (70%) + 63,701 (30%)]. In 1981, the number of "femmes collaboratrices" in Canada was 442,788 (see Table 1). Adding these figures together, we could conclude that at least 650,000 women were active as entrepreneurs in Canada in 1983. Because these statistics are so incomplete, it may well be that the total number of women owner-managers is much higher. Many women do not register their businesses, even if they employ several people. It is predicted that, in 1990, 65% of Canada's new companies will be started by women.¹⁰ Canadian women entrepreneurs are now active in all business sectors: mining, construction, transportation, pharmaceutical products,

chemical products, professional firms, and so on. Women entrepreneurs now belong to some 20 businesswomen's associations across Canada and make a significant contribution to the country's economic and commercial life.¹¹

How did women entrepreneurs acquire their businesses?

A comparison of the results of the above-mentioned studies conducted by various Quebec researchers (see Table 2) reveals that, on the whole, women become entrepreneurs by choice and that very few inherit a "ready-made" company. Stevenson's Maritime sample (1984) was composed entirely of women who had started their own firms. Studies from the other provinces do not always specify the mode of acquisition.

Table 2. Percentages of women by mode of acquisition

	Lavoie 1984 _b (Quebec) N=72 %	MIC 1985 (Quebec) N=50 %	Lee-Gosselin and Grisé 1986 (Quebec) N=63 %
Started business alone	29	26	47
Started business with one or more partners	27	35	
Purchased business alone	22		34
Acquired business alone		21	
Inherited business	21	17	16
Total*	99	99	97

Note: * Percentages do not total 100% because some women did not respond.

Table 2 confirms that most women entrepreneurs started from scratch or risked buying a business on their own. Later in this study, other data will be presented to illustrate that women entrepreneurs play an important role in

their companies, are very much involved in day-to-day management, and formulate company strategy. It will also be shown that women are graduating from management schools and are playing a vital role in job creation for women.

DESCRIPTION OF WOMEN-OWNED BUSINESSES

Legal status

Table 3 shows that most women entrepreneurs in the samples used in the Canadian studies preferred to register their companies as sole proprietorships rather than incorporate or create a partnership.

Table 3. Business structure¹²

	British Columbia (B.C. Women's Programs) 1986 N=1,000 %	Ontario Collom 1982 N=275 %	Maritimes Stevenson 1984 N=183 %	Quebec Lavoie 1984 _b N=72 %	"Femmes Collaboratrices" Rose-Lizée 1984 N=217 %
Sole proprietorships	65	50	40	49	55
Partnerships	22		20	10	12
Incorporated Companies	13	50	38	38	23
Total*	100	100	98	97	90

Notes: The other Canadian studies largely confirm these results but do not provide greater detail.

* Percentages do not always total 100% because some participants failed to respond.

This table indicates that, on the whole, women work primarily in sole proprietorship firms. The same research on "femmes collaboratrices" shows that only 10% of these women hold 50% or more of their company's shares. "Femmes

collaboratrices" are far from being acknowledged as full-fledged partners, even though they devote a third of their lives to working in the company. In Quebec, sole proprietorships are found primarily (74.8%) in the agricultural sector (Rose-Lizée, 1984), and the sole proprietors are usually their spouses.

Table 3 also indicates that, because Canadian women entrepreneurs preferred to register their businesses as sole proprietorships, they pay twice as much income tax as other entrepreneurs with equal sales volume. They are not allowed the same tax benefits as are corporations, which sometimes produce considerable savings that can later be reinvested in the company.

Women owner-managers' preference for simple registration is, however, understandable. Incorporation fees are often high and may be too expensive at start-up time. Many women who can invest only small amounts of capital are unable to incorporate until their third or even their fifth year in operation. This is especially true of younger entrepreneurs. They are, however, aware of the opportunities they are missing, and hope to be able to incorporate eventually. Longitudinal studies are needed to trace the evolution of these firms from simple registration to incorporation.

Sales volumes of women-owned firms

Canadian statistics¹³ show that, in 1978, 44% of small businesses (97% of the total number of Canadian companies at the time) had sales of less than \$50,000; 37% had a sales volume of \$50,000; and only 19% enjoyed sales of over \$2 million. Statistics relating to women-owned businesses for the 1980s are summarized in Table 4.

These data show that women business owners are coping quite well and that, compared to companies in general in 1978, their businesses are no longer concentrated in the low-revenue range. Young women entrepreneurs under 30 years of age (Lavoie, 1986) appear to be extraordinarily determined to manage firms of quite respectable size. Indeed, 70% of the businesses in this sample generated sales of over \$100,000.

Table 4. Sales volume of women-owned businesses

	British Columbia (1986)	Quebec Lee-Gosselin and Grisé (1986)*	Quebec Lavoie (1984) _b *	Quebec Lavoie (1986)*	Maritimes Stevenson (1984)
	%	%	%	%	%
Less than \$50,000	58	0	19	6	37
\$51,000 - \$100,000	17	18	17	25	13
\$101,000 - \$250,000	14	82	13	38	24
\$251,000 - \$2 million	10		22	19	7
More than \$2 million	1				1
(\$1 million +)**			(21)	(11)	
Total	100	100	92	99	82

Notes: * The studies by Lee-Gosselin and Grisé and Lavoie (1984) related to firms in the manufacturing sector. Lavoie's 1986 study used a sample of women under the age of 30 only.

** It should be pointed out that these researchers did not use exactly the same scales in presenting their results. These percentages are approximate. (Collom's 1982 study for Ontario does not give figures in this form, only overall percentages.)

Stevenson (1984) made some interesting comparisons with the sales volumes of the firms in her sample based on business type and business structure. Table 5 shows that the manufacturing firms in her Maritime sample had the largest sales volumes, and service companies the lowest. Studies on Quebec manufacturing firms confirm these results. In terms of business structure, sole proprietorships rank by far the lowest. Most of these studies also showed that service companies, which are also the least likely to be incorporated, produce lower sales volumes than the other two types of businesses (manufacturing and trade). Research has also demonstrated that older companies usually generate higher sales volumes. Such companies are not necessarily in the manufacturing sector.

Table 5. Sales volumes of women-owned businesses in the Maritimes, based on business type and business structure

	BUSINESS TYPE			BUSINESS STRUCTURE		
	Manufacturing %	Trade %	Service %	Sole Proprietorship %	Partnership %	Incorporated Company %
Under \$60,000	46.0	23.0	44.0	65.0	47.0	21.0
\$60,000 - \$255,000	24.0	51.0	34.0	29.0	48.0	48.0
\$255,000 - \$2 million	24.0	16.0	11.0	6.0	5.0	30.0
Over \$2 million	0.0	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.0	0.5
Total*	94.0	90.5	89.6	100.6	100.0	99.5

Source: Stevenson (1984), p. 45. Studies on the other provinces do not make these distinctions.

Note: * These percentages do not always total 100% because some women failed to respond.

Business or equity-capital structure

Shares rarely appear to be divided to women entrepreneurs' advantage, considering the time and effort they put into the company. Table 6 indicates that few women entrepreneurs own more than half their firms' shares. Although most businesses are registered as sole proprietorships, the owner is seldom the woman entrepreneur or co-entrepreneur. Women in partnerships and incorporated businesses are the ones who tend to be legally recognized as partners, and women in the manufacturing sector often have majority interests (according to the Quebec studies). Unfortunately, the studies on the other provinces provide no information on the division of ownership.

Table 6. Ownership and division of shares in Quebec firms

	Quebec Lee-Gosselin and Grisé (1986) %	Quebec Rose-Lizée (1984) %	Quebec Lavoie (1984) _b %	Quebec MIC (1985) %
Less than 51%	47.6	90.0	41.0	57.0
More than 51% but less than 100%	29.0	10.0	52.0	32.0
100%	19.0	0.0	? *	? *
Total	95.6	100.0	93.0	89.0

Note: * Lavoie (1984) and MIC (1985) did not use the same scales in their research (their scales were as follows: equal, majority or minority share, or other).

It might be said that, financially, married women owner-managers will receive less than they are entitled to, unless they have a good marriage contract that gives them a fair share of the business should the spouse die or unless they have signed a business charter with their partner(s) ensuring them a fair and equitable financial share upon dissolution.

Business type

It would be a difficult task indeed to find a business sector in which Canadian women entrepreneurs have yet to make their mark. Table 7 confirms women's significant role in the country's manufacturing industry. It also shows that women entrepreneurs still prefer the service sector, followed by the retail sector.

As will be seen further on, the study by the ministère de l'Industrie et du Commerce du Québec (MIC, 1986) indicates that, in the printing and publishing sector, the sales revenue of women-owned firms constitutes 50.7% of total sales volume in the industry.

Table 7. Business type of women-owned firms*

British Columbia Women's Programs (1986)		Ontario White (1984)		Maritimes Stevenson (1984)	
	%		%		%
Service	54.0	Retail	45.0	Service	38.0
Retail	28.0	Service	28.0	Trade	41.0
Manufacturing	16.0	Craft-Cottage	13.0	Manufacturing	16.0
Construction	0.8	Manufacturing	7.0	Construction	1.0
Finance	0.7	Franchising	8.0	Finance	3.0
Transportation	0.3			Transportation	0.5
Agriculture	0.1				
Mining	0.0				
Total	99.9		101.0		99.5

Quebec** MIC (1986)		Quebec** Lee-Gosselin and Grisé (1986)	
	%		%
Printing	22	Printing	17
Food	7	Food	11
Metals	11	Metals	8
Clothing	17	Clothing	8
Textile	4	Furniture	3
Other manufactured products	10	Photography	6
Forestry	6	Construction	10
Chemical products	3		
Minerals	5		
Total	85		63

Notes: * For details on sampling, see note 6.

** Manufacturing sector.

The other studies do not provide specific data on sectors.

Table 8, which gives Stevenson's results for the Maritime provinces (1984), gives an idea of the relationship between business structure and business type. The results confirm that, in general, women entering sectors traditionally dominated by men seem to follow the male tradition of incorporating their businesses. It is remarkable that so many women in these provinces also have incorporated their retail firms. Perhaps they are more aware of the tax benefits associated with incorporation.

Table 8. Business structure by type of business (Maritimes)

Type of Business	Business Structure			Total %
	Sole Proprietorship N=178 %	Partnership N=77 %	Incorporated Company N=192 %	
Manufacturing (N=55)	37.8	16.2	45.9	99.9
Trade (N=199)	36.2	16.1	47.7	100.0
Service (N=167)	48.5	19.2	32.2	99.9
Construction (N=4)	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0
Finance (N=12)	8.3	8.3	83.3	99.9
Transportation (N=5)	20.0	20.0	60.0	100.0
Agriculture, etc. (N=5)	40.0	20.0	40.0	100.0

Source: Stevenson (1984, p. 43). These data are based on the total sample from the Maritimes. The other provincial studies did not provide this information.

Number of years in operation

The results of the Canadian studies suggest that half the firms owned and operated by women have been in operation for under five years, as Table 9 indicates. An average of fewer than 15% of these companies have been in business for over ten years. These businesses are perhaps, on the whole, too young to allow any lessons to be drawn from the way in which they operate, but the experiences they have no doubt acquired over their first few years could help identify the strengths and weaknesses of female entrepreneurship in Canada, including the traits important for success as well as those which can lead to failure (see page 25).

Table 9. Number of years in operation

British Columbia Women's Programs (1986)		Ontario Collom (1982)	
	%		%
Less than 2 years	20	Less than 5 years	52
2 - 4 years	37	6 - 10 years	26
5 - 9 years	27	11 - 15 years	13
More than 10 years	17	16 - 20 years	4
		21 - 25 years	2
		More than 25 years	4
Total*	101		101
Quebec Lavoie (1984) _b		Maritime Provinces Stevenson (1984)	
	%		%
Less than 10 years	43	Less than 2 years	15
10 - 15 years	17	2 - 5 years	35
16 - 25 years	17	6 - 10 years	27
More than 26 years	22	11 - 20 years	14
		More than 20 years	10
Total*	99		101

Note: * Percentages have been rounded off. Studies in the other provinces did not consider this factor.

Number of employees

Even though many small firms owned and operated by Canadian women are not necessarily job creators (an average of 35% create no jobs at all), they are major employers, especially for women. In Ontario, Collom (1982) reported that these firms employed an average of 5.6 women full-time and 4 part-time (see Table 10). Lee-Gosselin and Grisé (1986) found that 81% of Quebec women entrepreneurs employ at least 3 people, and Lavoie's 1984 study noted that 43% of her respondents in the manufacturing sector employed 10 people or more, mainly women (approximately 80%). Research in Saskatchewan has shown that 41% of men, compared to 20% of women, would like to hire 3

or more full-time employees. These data are meant as an overview only, as the scales used vary from one study to another.

Table 10. Number of employees by province

British Columbia Women's Programs (1986)			Quebec MIC (1986)	
Number of employees	%		Number of employees	%
0	45.0		0	20
1	21.0		1 - 9	45
2 - 3	18.0		10 - 25	20
4 - 5	7.0		26 - 49	8
6 - 19	6.0		50 - 99	4
20 - 49	0.8		More than 100	3
More than 50	3.0			
Total	100.8			100

Quebec Rose-Lizée (1984)			Maritime Provinces Stevenson (1984)			
Agriculture		Small Business	Manufacturing	Retail Trade	Services	
Employees	%	%	Number of employees	%	%	%
0	31	20	0	37	43	48
Regular	42	73	1 - 4	40	44	36
Seasonal	26	6	5 - 9	13	10	7
			10 - 19	10	1	7
			20 - 49	0	1	1
Total	99	99		100	99	99

Based on the results of his 1984 Ontario study, White affirms that, if the Canadian Federation of Independent Business is correct in asserting that the Canadian small firm sector creates at least 70% of new jobs, it would be fair to say that a large number of these new jobs are created by women. Indeed, women seem to have partially resolved the problem of access to employment among themselves: thanks to their firms and the fact that they

do business with suppliers who are also women (77% in the Maritimes sample), Canadian women entrepreneurs maintain jobs in other women-owned businesses.

The Quebec study by Garnier and Gasse (1984) enables a comparison of job creation in men-owned businesses with the results obtained by the MIC (1986) for women-owned firms. Fourteen point eight per cent of women-owned businesses employ 26 people or more, compared to 56.6% for men-owned companies (see Table 11). The large difference between these two percentages indicates that women-owned firms are still much smaller than those of their male counterparts in the same province. This data is not as encouraging as White's, but it is hoped that if Canadian women continue to create more companies than do men each year, women will eventually have less trouble finding jobs, at least in sectors dominated by women.

Table 11. Job creation in Quebec: men- and women-owned businesses

Garnier and Gasse (1984) N=29		MIC (1986) N=1,698	
Number of jobs created in men-owned businesses	%	Number of jobs created in women-owned businesses	%
10 - 25	43.3	No job	19.7
26 - 49	30.0	1 - 9	45.0
50 - 99	13.3	10 - 25	19.7
100 - 249	13.3	26 - 49	7.8
		50 - 99	4.2
		More than 100	2.8
Total	99.9		99.2

Note: No similar comparative data is provided in the other studies.

Start-up capital

The Quebec and Manitoba studies provide the only data on the amount of capital used by women to go into business. These data indicate that 40% to 50% of women in Quebec start up their businesses with less than \$5,000 (see

Table 12) and that women entrepreneurs in Manitoba set out with even less capital. No data is available for the other provinces.

Table 12. Start-up capital: Quebec and Manitoban women entrepreneurs

	Quebec Lavoie (1984) _b	Manitoba Suek et al. (1983)
	%	%
Less than \$5,000	41.3	55
\$5,000 - \$10,000	20.6	12
\$10,001 - \$15,000	9.5	17*
\$15,001 - \$25,000	7.9	
\$25,001 - \$40,000	4.8	12
\$40,001 - \$100,000	5.8	
Total	89.9**	96**

Notes: * 17% of the Manitoban sample invested between \$10,000 and \$30,000.

** These figures do not total 100% because some owners did not answer the question.

Lavoie's study (1984)_b on the manufacturing sector suggests that the amount of capital invested depends on the sector. It is mainly in the forestry, chemical products, and printing sectors that women entrepreneurs have been able to start up firms successfully with less than \$5,000 in capital. In the rubber and transportation equipment sectors, firms needed start-up capital of at least \$25,000. The range varies for sectors such as food, paper, furniture, clothing, and textiles: women entrepreneurs may invest anywhere from \$5,000 to \$100,000 or more in start-up capital. Considering that most of these firms have been in business for under ten years, it is remarkable that they were able to get started with so little capital. It can be assumed that their owners must have given themselves fairly modest salaries over the first few years.

Sources of financing

Studies tend to show that success is not a matter of luck, but of risk, and that many women entrepreneurs must have relied heavily on their personal savings to go into business, drawing from their only source of financial security for retirement (see Table 13).

Table 13. Sources of financing for start-up capital: women entrepreneurs in Quebec and the Maritimes

Rose-Lizée (1984)		Lavoie (1984)		Stevenson (1984)*	
	%		%		%
Commercial bank loan	48	Commercial bank loan	11	Commercial bank loan	56.0
Spouse's savings	73	Personal savings	52	Personal savings	48.0
Family savings	33	Family savings	19	Joint personal savings	19.0
Friends	33	Relatives	8	Family and friends	21.0
Financing through shareholding	3	Other	5	Venture capital firm	0.5
Government loan	3			Provincial government	7.0
Government subsidy	2			Federal government	6.0
				Other	9.0
Total	195**		95		166.5**

Notes: * Stevenson notes that only one woman received a loan from the Federal Business Development Bank.

** Some women had access to more than one source of financing.

Collom (1982) reported that of the women managers in his southern Ontario sample who applied to a financial institution for assistance, only 6% had their applications rejected. Although he says that there does not seem to

be any discrimination against women managers in urban areas, he notes that this conclusion does not necessarily hold for established or aspiring women business owners in smaller centres. He also points out that businesses seemed able to meet their own operational financing needs, with suppliers and banks playing only an auxiliary role.

Most of the other studies on women entrepreneurship, however, indicate that women are far from being the favourite or most sought-after customers of financial institutions. Even Collom's 1982 study in Ontario conducted for the Small Business Secretariat and the study by the U.S. President's Task Force on Women Business Owners concluded that women make heavy use of their own finances and personal savings in business start-ups not by choice but because they have no alternative. White (1984), another Ontario researcher, points out that this perhaps indicates either that women expected discrimination from financial institutions or that these institutions are doing a poor job in marketing to women entrepreneurs.

Similarly, Lavoie's study (1984)_b showed that only 11.7% of the women in her sample drawn from the manufacturing sector who wanted to go into business managed to get a commercial bank loan when first starting their enterprise. Once companies were on their feet and starting to grow, 20.6% were able to obtain commercial loans upon reapplying to a financial institution (see Table 14). It seems that, as with their male counterparts, these women owner-managers had to show their mettle and build up their financial credibility before being considered a good risk. Stevenson (1984) reports that out of the 75% of the women in her study who applied for bank credit, 19% were turned down. The reasons for these rejections are given in Table 15. Once again, the data show that over 50% of businesswomen are (or believe themselves to be) penalized because they are going into business for the first time or because they are women. Nevertheless, Stevenson (1984) says that women do not perceive a major problem with financial institutions. Bankers are even considered to be quite cooperative, offering assistance in preparing their applications. According to Stevenson, this business relationship is not felt to be limiting or in need of major changes. After all, there is no shortage of banks, and women entrepreneurs can always try elsewhere. It is not known why there seems to

be such a significant difference between women entrepreneurs in Quebec and the Maritimes in this respect.

Table 14. Second source approached for financing (after first rejection) by women entrepreneurs in Quebec

Source of financing	%
Commercial bank loan	20.6
Friends	3.2
Family savings	1.6
Relatives	9.5
Provincial subsidy	3.2
Working capital	50.0
Other	1.6
Total	89.7*

Source: Lavoie (1984)_b

Note: * Several women did not answer this question.

Table 15. Factors influencing rejection of credit application in the Maritime (respondent's opinion)

Factor	%
Lack of collateral	13.0
No previous credit history	6.5
Poor business credit history	--
No previous personal history	2.2
Reluctance to lend to small or new business owners	28.2
Reluctance to lend to a woman business owner	28.2
Inadequately prepared loan request	4.4
Other	17.4
Total	99.9

Source: Stevenson (1984), p. 68.

A study by Knight (1984) makes it possible to compare the fate of women entrepreneurs with their male counterparts. His study involving 62 companies from Ontario (56% of the sample), the Western provinces (24%), Quebec (15%), and the Maritimes (1%), shows that it is common for small firms' credit applications to be turned down, especially by venture capitalists. On the average, only 15% obtained financing and at least 60% were turned down. Knight then tried to determine what kinds of financial sponsors these firms approached next and what results were attained (see Table 16). Even when a second application was made, 14% of Canadian owner-managers were turned down again. These entrepreneurs complained mainly about venture capitalists' negative, conservative attitude and their ignorance of small firms' needs and potential. It seems that firms that have been in business for under five years have virtually no possibility of obtaining risk capital. Even venture capitalists admit that they reject 98% of the applications they receive, and firms that manage to obtain funding from other sources only receive half the amount they request.

This situation explains in part why women-owned businesses, which are often less than five years old and have lower sales volumes than venture capitalists prefer to see, are at a double disadvantage. Women entrepreneurs rarely need the amounts of money likely to interest lenders (i.e., about \$1 million), as Knight (1984) showed in his study (see Table 17). Because most women-owned businesses are quite small, they stand little chance of building up their credit with financial sponsors (it is known that small firms are high-risk ventures, as 55% fold within five years and 80% do not survive longer than ten years).

Regardless of whether the owner-manager is a man or a woman, most business start-ups are financed solely by the owner or owners. An urgent need for new, outside capital arises within the first year. Venture capitalists say that women never come to them at this stage as they feel disillusioned by their male colleagues' discouraging experiences. Moreover, the financial market's current structure does not meet the financial needs of women-owned businesses adequately. Not only are they excluded from the share and bond markets because their business volumes are low or their firms are too young (admission fees

Table 16. Other sources approached for financing after rejection and reasons for second rejection

Source Approached	Received financing		Reasons for Second Rejection	
	%	%		%
Chartered bank	52	23	Amount too small	17
Individual investors	42	26	Insufficient earnings	17
Federal Business Development Bank	40	15	Sector not recommended	13
Provincial government program	39	16	Unstable economy	10
Federal government program	34	18	Price of new product too high	10
Small Business Development Corporation	27	11	Deal too risky	10
Private Placements	24	13	Management incompetence	6
			Not interested in type of business	17
Total	258*	122*		100

Source: Knight (1984), pp. 22, 24-25.

Note: * Several firms approached more than one institution.

Table 17. Amount of venture capital being sought

Venture capital	%
Less than \$250,000	19
\$250,000 - \$1,000,000	37
\$1,000,000 - \$3,000,000	30
More than \$3,000,000	14
Total	100
Average	\$2,875,000

Source: Knight (1984), p. 21.

for the Montreal Exchange are over \$500,000), their share of traditional bank credits is threatened each time interest rates go up, just as for any other small firm. Citing Bank of Canada data, researcher Amhed Naciri (1985) pointed out that although small firms account for 22% of the sales volume and 42% of the jobs in Canada's commercial sector, in 1983 they received only 37% of all bank credits in the economy and less than 30% of financing from all sources. Naciri concludes that:

... there are really only two ways for a small business to finance its growth: self-financing or through bank debt. Moreover, a small business must be careful not to opt for a rate of growth it is unable to finance.¹⁴

The British Columbia study (B.C. Women's Programs, 1986) shows that it is primarily young women entrepreneurs who have problems obtaining start-up capital (see Table 18). The study also suggests that women business owners in British Columbia who have never been married also feel that they have greater difficulty in obtaining capital than widowed, divorced, or separated women do.

Table 18. Percentage of women entrepreneurs in British Columbia, by age group, unable to obtain start-up financing

Age group	N	%
15 - 24	20	84.2
25 - 34	209	67.9
35 - 44	203	62.7
45 - 54	107	54.7
55 - 64	51	44.4
Over 65	14	39.2

Source: Adapted from the study by the B.C. Women's Programs, 1986, p. 17. Studies from the other provinces did not make similar comparisons.

Profitability

On the average, men-owned registered companies generate more income than female-owned firms do (see Table 19). This does not necessarily mean that these companies are more profitable, as profitability depends on the amount of capital invested. None of the 13 studies referred to in this table calculated the return on investment. However, it is known that, on the average, women invest less start-up capital. It may be that their firms are more profitable, even though their incomes are, on the average, lower than men's. The fact that there are less women active in the manufacturing sector, where higher incomes and greater profits can be made, may partly explain their weaker performance. Women-owned businesses are also much younger and smaller; as a result, their profit potential is lower.

Table 19. Total taxable income of men and women business proprietors

Taxation Year	WOMEN		MEN	
	Taxable Income	Average	Taxable Income	Average
1979	\$617,426	\$12,382	\$4,388,914	\$17,423
1980	\$747,251	\$13,284	\$4,639,745	\$18,634
1981	\$880,736	\$14,159	\$4,752,103	\$19,624
1982	\$901,254	\$14,852	\$4,395,607	\$20,504
1983	\$946,862	\$15,017	\$4,716,043	\$21,266

Source: Revenue Canada, Taxation, *Taxation Statistics*, Table 12, for years 1979 to 1983.

Another more recent Ontario study seems to show that women entrepreneurs are more successful than their male counterparts (White, 1984). In 1983, White repeated a 1979 study on 486 companies operated by men and 1,364 firms run by women and found that only 25% (N=123) of the men-owned businesses were still operating, compared to 47% (N=644) of the women-owned firms. In comparing several elements that characterized these companies, four main factors emerged:

SURVIVING BUSINESSES

1. Six to ten months had been taken by the owners to research and prepare for their new business ventures.
2. Almost 90% of the entrepreneurs had used professional advisers such as lawyers and accountants in setting up their enterprises.
3. Almost 70% of the women business owners said they had taken business-related courses before launching their enterprises and they also regularly read books and periodicals dealing with business management, finance, and marketing.
4. More than 50% of the owners had started their enterprises with modest expectations of income (\$12,000) for the first year of operation.

FAILED BUSINESSES

1. Owners took less than four months to prepare for start-up.
2. Only 25% of these entrepreneurs had sought professional help.
3. Ten per cent of the owners had attended courses or read business publications on a regular basis.
4. Thirty-six per cent of the owner-managers expected to make a first-year income of \$40,000 and substantial profit after three years.

Source: Summary of White, 1984, p. 134.

White adds that:

... the successful owner-managers tended to be better financed, with a lower overall debt/equity ratio than their failed counterparts. The surviving owners tend to be better educated than the unsuccessful ones in terms of years of education and also tended to be older.¹⁵

Women's lower incomes might also be attributable to a lack of initial strategic planning. Indeed, one of the Quebec studies (Lavoie, 1984)_b indicates that 47.6% of the women entrepreneurs in the sample, drawn from the manufacturing sector, had started up their businesses without prior planning or after only a few weeks of planning (see Table 20).

Table 20. Planning time allotted to setting up a business in the manufacturing sector in Quebec

Planning	%
None	12.7
A few weeks	34.9
A few months	25.4
More than one year	12.7
More than two years	7.9
Total	93.6*

Source: Lavoie (1984)_b. Unpublished data.

Note: * Several participants did not answer this question.

It is surprising to note that, for several women in the sample, setting up a business was more a matter of impulse than rational planning. Unfortunately, there are no Quebec studies that would allow a comparison of the profitability of women-owned businesses with men-owned firms. It is known, however, that the operating costs of women-owned and -managed manufacturing firms compare quite favourably with other companies in the sector (Lavoie 1984_b, p. 15). Production costs tended to be between 26% and 40% of total expenses, and only 14.2% of the companies in the sample had production costs of over 61%. The data indicate that Quebec manufacturers have managed to give themselves lots of room to manoeuvre with regard to operating costs. The same study indicated that 30% of these women had doubled and, in some cases, quintupled their sales from the previous year, whereas 49% had the same sales volume and only 11% registered lower sales than the year before. It must be remembered that Canadian firms had just been through one of the worst economic crises in their history. Women entrepreneurs in both Quebec and Ontario seem to have weathered the storm without too much difficulty. Table 21, however, indicates that companies with sales between \$50,000 and \$75,000 and between \$200,000 and \$300,000 suffered most.

Table 21. Change in sales volumes of women-owned manufacturing firms in Quebec over a five-year period

	1979 %	1983 %	Change
Less than \$50,000	18.8	18.8	0
\$50,000 - \$75,000	12.5	8.4	-4.1
\$75,001 - \$100,000	9.4	8.4	-1.0
\$100,001 - \$200,000	6.2	12.6	+6.4
\$200,001 - \$300,000	8.0	4.2	-3.8
\$300,001 - \$500,000	3.2	12.6	+9.4
\$500,001 - \$1,000,000	4.8	9.6	+4.8
More than \$1 million	6.4	11.2	+4.8
Total	69.3	85.8	

Source: Lavoie (1984). Unpublished data from a longitudinal study. The other studies did not make similar comparisons with their data.

These data corroborate White's data (1984), suggesting that the greater the sales volume, the easier it is to succeed. The 33.4% of the companies with sales volumes of over \$300,000 increased their sales by an average of 5%, whereas companies with a sales volume of under \$300,000 experienced a drop of 1% in sales over the same period. Although a company's sales volume is not in itself an indication of how profitable it is, it can be said that the greater a firm's sales volume, the more likely it is to be profitable. It is reassuring to see that growing numbers of women are enjoying outstanding success in this respect.

Market share

Only two Quebec studies have dealt with market share (MIC, 1986; see Table 22) or market location (Lavoie, 1984)^b of firms started and operated by women. Lavoie's study showed that 20% of the women entrepreneurs in her sample did not seem to have an accurate idea of their market share.

Table 22. Sales volumes of Quebec manufacturing firms run by women as a percentage of total sales in the sector

	%
Printing and publishing	50.7
Non-metallic minerals	37.0
Textiles	36.0
Electrical and electronic products	31.0
Other manufacturing firms	38.0

Source: MIC (1986). The other studies did not present results of this kind.

These data from Quebec demonstrate women's remarkably dynamic presence in the manufacturing sector. Although their companies are still quite young, they already account for an average of 22% of the Quebec manufacturing market and are making inroads in the financial sector (e.g., insurance, securities, real estate, etc.). Women in Quebec are showing increasing interest in sectors traditionally dominated by men. Lavoie's study (1984)₆ indicates that, if women entrepreneurs in the manufacturing sector decided to move into the international market (in which very few of them currently operate), they would quickly become competitors. The study also shows that, for the time being, women entrepreneurs feel that their competitive edge lies in the lower prices and higher quality of their products; they seem to be much less concerned with brand image and product design.

Initial barriers

Aside from the above-mentioned financial problems and their difficulty in attaining a fair ownership status, women entrepreneurs and co-entrepreneurs must often make do with far less business experience than their male counterparts, fewer contacts in the business world, and less access to information. Indeed, services and programs provided by both provincial and federal governments and institutions are often not well used by women owner-managers. The reasons for this most often cited by women are that they are not aware of or have little knowledge of these programs, the programs change too often to be

of any use, and too few programs are available to small firms. The fact that some government programs are not applicable to the sectors in which women-owned businesses seem to be concentrated may also play a role here. Outreach programs undertaken by governments have not been totally successful in helping this part of the small business sector.

Suppliers seem to be women's greatest allies, as Collom's study (1982) showed. Friends were considered to be most helpful in a majority of cases, with governments and banking institutions typically being given a very poor rating, except in Stevenson's study (1984).

Strengths and weaknesses

The following points emerge from this study's look at the strengths and weaknesses of firms operated by Canadian women:

STRENGTHS

1. Women-owned businesses can be found in all business sectors.
2. They are more profitable in the manufacturing sector.
3. In some provinces, they now dominate over half the market in one sector or more (e.g., printing).
4. They create numerous jobs for women and give much of their business to women suppliers.
5. They are not as profitable as men-owned businesses, but seem to survive longer.
6. Most women entrepreneurs have taken risks (they started their own firms rather than inheriting them).

WEAKNESSES

1. Many firms cannot afford incorporation fees and most are only sole proprietorships.
2. Most have sales volumes of under \$50,000.
3. Over half of women entrepreneurs are minority shareholders.
4. They are young firms, with an average of only two or three employees.
5. Most women entrepreneurs were unable to obtain more than \$5,000 in start-up capital, and over 50% had their applications for commercial bank loans turned down.

7. Their suppliers and friends are their greatest allies.
6. Young women entrepreneurs, along with women who are single or do not live in an urban area, say they have greater difficulty building up their bank credit.
7. Women entrepreneurs do not have enough information to consider and use government programs.

PROFILES OF WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS

Reasons for going into business

"Femmes collaboratrices" seem to become involved in the family business mainly because they want to work with their spouses. Other reasons mentioned are: to be close to home so that they can bring up their children, to fulfil their potential, and to look after the house. According to Rose-Lizée's study (1984), the overwhelming majority seem to consider their marriage to be more important, as 70.5% said they would leave the business if their participation caused problems in the household.

Other women owner-managers have a wider variety of reasons, as Table 23 indicates. The three most important reasons seem to be a desire to make greater use of their talents, the desire to be financially independent, and the desire to take on a challenge. It is interesting to note that these reasons are mostly positive in nature. Thirty-eight per cent of Manitoban women entrepreneurs¹⁶ go into business primarily for the challenge, and another 22% say that it is both for the challenge and to grow as a person. The main reason is apparently neither the difficulty of finding employment nor the loss of a job. Above all, women are searching for something they do not find in the home. As Stevenson (1984) points out, for 64% of these women, the decision was a planned and objective one.

Table 23. Main reasons for business entry

British Columbia Women's Programs (1986)		Ontario Collom (1982)	
	%		%
Challenge, self-fulfilment	46	As a personal challenge	*
Financial independence	23	To be own boss	*
		Financial independence	*
Total	69		*
Quebec MIC (1985)		Maritime Provinces Stevenson (1984)	
	%		%
As a challenge	44	Financial independence	16
Financial independence	16	Self-fulfilment	16
Self-fulfilment	16	To be own boss	16
Total	76		48

Note: * Collom (1982) prioritizes the main reasons, but does not give percentages.

Age of women business owners

In 1984, Lavoie's study involved very few women entrepreneurs under 25 years of age in the Quebec manufacturing sector. Thanks to the Quebec government's "Bourses d'affaires"¹⁷ program, which offers recent graduates a \$25,000 subsidy to start up a business, young women entrepreneurs could now well make up over 20% of her sample. Other Canadian researchers (B.C. Women's Programs, 1986; Stevenson, 1984) found only a small percentage of women under age 25, as Table 24 indicates. The fact that the women in the Quebec samples were older than those in the other provinces' samples may be explained by pointing out that they were drawn exclusively from the manufacturing sector; "femmes collaboratrices" are relatively younger. Because most of the firms

contacted have been in business for less than five years, it might be concluded that women go into business in their early thirties. It would be interesting to evaluate the "Bourses d'affaires" program in a few years and examine the success/failure rate among younger entrepreneurs.

Table 24. Age of Canadian women entrepreneurs

British Columbia Women's Programs (1986)		Quebec Lavoie (1984) _b		Maritime Provinces Stevenson (1984)	
Age	%	Age	%	Age	%
15-24	2.4	Under 25	1.6	Under 25	1.0
25-34	30.8	25-30	11.1	25-30	10.9
35-44	32.4	31-35	4.8	31-35	18.6
45-54	11.4	36-40	19.0	36-40	23.5
55-64	3.6	41-45	17.5	41-45	16.9
Over 65	3.6	46-50	12.7	46-50	9.3
		Over 50	27.0	Over 50	10.4
Total*	84.2		93.7		90.6

Note: * Several women did not answer this question. The other studies did not mention age.

Marital status

The studies disprove the widespread belief that women's business careers are a major cause of failed marriages and broken homes. Over 60% of the women entrepreneurs contacted in the Canadian studies said they were married. Lavoie (1984)_b even noted that more women were married **after** setting up their business. She also points out that:

... in 1984 there were fewer single women (16%) than at the time the firms were started (21%). Also, only 4% were divorced, which is much lower than the divorce rate in Quebec. Sixteen percent were widows and 1% were separated.¹⁸

The type of marriage contract increasingly preferred by these women is the separation of estates (Lavoie, 1984¹⁸; Rose-Lizée, 1984), at least in Quebec (90% of women). Such an arrangement has the advantage of protecting certain family property belonging to the woman in case of bankruptcy. Unfortunately, it does not recognize the woman's contribution to the business in case of sale, divorce, separation, or even death in cases where women are not shareholders. When a husband and wife have separate estates, it is especially important to register the wife as an associate, shareholder, or co-owner.¹⁹

As shown above, however, most "femmes collaboratrices" do not own any shares in the company and those who do own shares are not majority shareholders. If the firm's charter (providing there is one) does not define her rights and privileges, a woman entrepreneur (especially in partnerships) would be deceiving herself in thinking that her company will provide her with the financial security she was seeking when she first went into business. Much work remains to be done in helping women entrepreneurs restructure their financial situation within their businesses, especially in the case of sole proprietorships registered in the spouse's name. For example, in the event of business bankruptcy, 33.6%²⁰ of "femmes collaboratrices", and even their children, could lose everything (except what is specifically protected by bankruptcy laws), because their businesses are not incorporated and their marriage contracts often provide for a common or joint estate.

Education

Most of the Canadian studies have shown that, on the average, women owner-managers have a higher level of education than other women (B.C. Women's Programs, 1986)²¹ and male entrepreneurs (Rose-Lizée, 1984 and Toulouse, 1979²²). Rose-Lizée showed that "femmes collaboratrices" are better educated than their spouses and are more likely to have completed their secondary and university studies, as Table 25 indicates. According to Professor Toulouse,²³ only 20% of Quebec entrepreneurs have a university education. A more recent study (Garnier and Gasse, 1984) showed that men owner-managers are perhaps now as well educated as their women colleagues. Indeed, 16.7%²⁴

of respondents had completed elementary school, 46.7% secondary school, 20% university, and 17% graduate studies. In Saskatchewan, however, the study by the Department of Tourism and Small Business (1986) indicated that men entrepreneurs had a higher level of education than women entrepreneurs. These data show that women and men entrepreneurs are now part of a highly educated elite. Both women and men know their "business" and deserve to be taken seriously. Government information and specialized courses should be addressed to an educated population that is not necessarily specialized in business administration (although 62% of Lee-Gosselin and Grisé's respondents [1986] had pursued specialized studies).

Table 25. Level of education of women entrepreneurs

British Columbia Women's Programs (1986)		Quebec Rose-Lizée (1984)		Women	Men
	%			%	%
Primary	16	Primary		20	27
Secondary	20	Secondary school		32	36
Undergraduate studies	25	partly completed			
Graduate studies	27	Secondary school completed		25	17
partly completed		Undergraduate studies		17	14
Post-graduate	12	partly completed			
		Bachelor's degree completed		5	6
Total	100			99	100

Quebec Lee-Gosselin and Grisé (1986)		Quebec Lavoie (1984) _b		Maritime Provinces Stevenson (1984)	
	%		%		%
Secondary	84	Primary	19	Primary	2.2
Post-secondary		Secondary	46	Secondary school	11.0
-completed	47	Undergraduate	11	partly completed	
-partly completed	38	studies		Undergraduate	40.0
Special studies	50	Graduate studies	19	studies	
				Graduate studies	31.0
Total	219		95		84.2

Note: * Several women are included in more than one category.

Number of children

In Lavoie's study (1984)_b on the Quebec manufacturing sector, her respondents had more children at the time the study was done than when they had started up their businesses. Forty-five per cent had no children upon setting up their businesses, compared to only 31.7% who did not have children at the time the study was carried out. Research on "femmes collaboratrices" in Quebec indicates that these women have an average of three children. Lee-Gosselin and Grisé's study (1986) found that 98% have two children or more. Sixty-five per cent of these women said that they take on both parental and professional responsibilities. The studies conducted in British Columbia and the Maritimes, however, do not appear to confirm these Quebec findings, although the question was not asked in the same way. In British Columbia, 54.2% of the respondents said they had no children living at home; in the Atlantic provinces, 44.3% said they had none at home.

These results suggest that a woman's business career is not an obstacle to a family life and that business women do not neglect their family obligations. Unfortunately, women are still the ones primarily responsible for raising the children. The data (Lavoie, 1984_b; Rose-Lizée, 1984) show that about 60% of women take responsibility for looking after the children and that only 21.4% (manufacturing) to 32% ("femmes collaboratrices") acknowledge receiving help and cooperation from their spouses. This represents an improvement, however, as only 14.7% of women entrepreneurs in the manufacturing sector said they could count on the support of their spouses at the time their firms were founded. They can no longer rely as much on the children's grandparents, but an average of 25% of the respondents said that they can now count on their older relatives. Fifty-eight per cent say that they manage by putting in extra hours; 8% admit that they are overloaded; and quite a small number (10%) have managed to hire full-time help.

Women entrepreneurs face the same family problems as other professional women in Canada. They seem to suffer most in rural areas, as it is difficult to find child-care services or domestic help. No general research on entrepreneurship to date has shown that men are similarly handicapped.

Family history of entrepreneurship

These studies do not conclusively establish a relationship between a history of entrepreneurship in the family and a woman's decision to go into business. The studies by Collom (1982) and Stevenson (1984) suggest that there may be a strong correlation between the desire to found a company and the presence of entrepreneurs in the family. Fifty-two per cent of women business owners in the Maritimes mentioned that either their father or mother — or both — were business owners or had a professional practice, especially in the hotel and restaurant sectors. These results are strongly supported by numerous American statistics. In the Quebec manufacturing sector, 57% of the respondents in the Lee-Gosselin and Grisé study (1986) said that there was at least one entrepreneur in their family, whereas 57% of Lavoie's respondents (1986) said there were none. There has been much speculation on the subject, but there is no evidence which proves whether people are born entrepreneurs or become them. One thing is certain, though: the children of entrepreneurs have a head start over their colleagues. They have a better idea of what to expect, as they have seen firsthand how to make important decisions, how to manage employees, the kinds of relationships to establish with suppliers, and so on. It can only be hoped that the remarkable proliferation of female entrepreneurship will have an equally positive impact on future generations.

Previous work experience

Women entrepreneurs, especially "femmes collaboratrices", usually have previous work experience. Twenty-two per cent have been employed in offices, and 25% have worked as hairstylists, salespersons, waitresses, etc. Sixty-five per cent have worked for at least five years (Rose-Lizée, 1984). Stevenson (1984) notes that 50% of her respondents felt that their experience and training had prepared them well for the business world. The MIC study (1985) states that most of the women in its sample had acquired experience in another company for several years before setting out on their own. Most had acquired training in areas they needed to know about, often by taking evening courses in management. Collom (1982) stresses the importance of previous experience,

noting that among the women owner-managers in Ontario forced to close their firms, only a small percentage had had prior business experience.

It can therefore be said that a large number of Canadian women owner-managers have not gone into business unprepared; they have acquired the knowledge, experience, and even the expertise to make a success of their companies.

Management skills

Women entrepreneurs put in long hours. In the MIC study (1985), 78% of the respondents said they worked more than 40 hours a week. The study by Lee-Gosselin and Grisé (1986) asserts that 52% of women owners of manufacturing firms put in 50 or more hours weekly. Rose-Lizée's 1984 study on "femmes collaboratrices" showed that an average of 30% worked more than 41 hours a week, and that in the agricultural sector, 57% often devoted more than 40 hours weekly to the family business. In this sector, most tasks involve farm work, although 25% of the respondents were primarily responsible for bookkeeping and secretarial work.

In the manufacturing sector, women usually act as the chief executive officer (87% in the Lee-Gosselin and Grisé study, 1984), but many are involved in other management activities, such as planning, accounting, and marketing, and do not hold the firm's top position. In the same sector, Lavoie's study (1984)_b showed that women entrepreneurs were mainly concerned with day-to-day management, such as planning, control and finance, while their employees looked after the rest. They felt themselves to be much weaker than their competitors with respect to financing and capital assets, marketing and advertising skills, and research and development. Their strengths were in human resources, their management team, and their sales staff. They consider themselves to be as effective as their male counterparts with respect to the delegation and distribution of tasks. They complain, however, of being unable to find or hire competent personnel.

It should be pointed out that a mere 2% of these firms are unionized. Women entrepreneurs have quite a negative view of trade unions; they consider them a serious obstacle to smooth business operations, especially as regards the need for control. One woman mentioned that she had sold all her sewing machines and contracted out her sewing work when she found out that her employees intended to unionize. Lee-Gosselin²⁵ recently confirmed this reluctance to deal with unions; very few of these women have taken courses in industrial relations and often feel unprepared when labour problems arise. In the study, several women entrepreneurs said they were thinking of setting up a new worker-owner system which would give them the opportunity to discuss issues such as unions.

Relationships with the business community

According to Collom (1982), most women business owners

... belonged to some type of association and felt that these were necessary and useful for purposes of information exchange, contacts, personal growth, etc. Some organizations were specified as being for men only; it was felt that being able to belong to these would be advantageous to women from a business point of view.²⁶

Women entrepreneurs primarily belong to associations in their own business sector. Less than 20%, however, seem to be members of a chamber of commerce. Owners of very small firms feel that these organizations do not provide any benefits and are basically social clubs. Accountants seem to be the first people to whom women entrepreneurs turn. When they do not make their decisions alone or with their partners, 20% say they make their decisions with their accountants. Sometimes decisions are made with their lawyers or other business people in the community. The British Columbia study corroborates these data closely.

Traits important for success

Setting up a business, running it, and making it grow is no easy task. From Vancouver to Halifax, women entrepreneurs agree that personal discipline, perseverance, courage, and good health are vital to a firm's effectiveness and success. Neither the need to dominate nor the desire for independence make a business successful, they say. Success is produced by hard work and the strength of character required to meet the challenges and problems entailed by entrepreneurship. In the MIC study (1985), 44.3% of the respondents relied on their work skills, 11% on their self-confidence, and 9% on good relations with those with whom they work. According to these women, the most important personal qualities are: determination (43.8%), a willingness to take risks (16.7%), leadership (12.5%), the desire for success (10.4%), personality (10.4%), and creativity (6.2%). These factors seem to be just as important for businessmen as they are for businesswomen.²⁷

Types of women entrepreneurs

In Lavoie's first study (1984)_a on women business owners in the Montreal area, three types of women entrepreneurs could be identified among her 250 respondents (see Table 26), drawn from various Quebec business sectors:

- **The mentor-assisted entrepreneur**, so called because from the very beginning she receives advice from a mentor or sponsor (an accountant, parent, banker, or other person) who is able to open doors in the business sector in which she wishes to operate.
- **The young graduate entrepreneur**, a woman who has just acquired specific — and largely theoretical — knowledge about business administration. She is the young graduate of management schools who has studied alongside her future male colleagues and has had the opportunity to size herself up against those who are traditionally considered to be the entrepreneurs of tomorrow, knowing that she will be able to keep pace with them. She goes into business on her own or with one or more partners.

- The social entrepreneur, the women who all of a sudden finds herself alone at home because her husband has passed on, or because she has had a divorce, or because all her children have left home. She may also have inherited a firm and may decide to go into business simply for the human contact. Her priorities are not to make money or to gain independence. She has this already. It is mainly a matter of wanting to be where the action is.

Table 26. Three profiles of Quebec women entrepreneurs

N = 250	The mentor-assisted entrepreneur N = 145	The young graduate entrepreneur N = 25	The social entrepreneur N = 80
Sector	retail, services, manufacturing, travel agencies, investments	mainly retail: boutiques, stores, etc.	mainly in the women's sector: hairdressing salons, beauty parlours, etc.
Age at start-up	40-45	25-35	41-55
Marital status	58% married	44% married	mainly single, widowed, or divorced
Family background	fewer than five brothers and sisters	family of about five or six members	large family (more than five brothers and sisters)
Education	mostly graduates in administration or social sciences	40% are graduates in administration and 20% in humanities	most have not completed university
Sales volume	45% take in more than \$200,000, the rest at least \$100,000	43.5% take in \$50,000 to \$150,000	less than \$50,000
Management style	emphasis on production, risk, time management	emphasis on administration, common sense, part-time job	emphasis on social relationships, hard work
Salary	40% earn more than \$40,000	30% earn less than \$10,000, average is \$25,000	\$10,000 - \$20,000

Number of employees	more than 10	only 15% of firms have more than 5	an average of more than 6
Consultants	45% have an adviser and receive a considerable amount of help	do not seek or receive much advice	rarely consult experts
Influence of spouse	52% are strongly influenced	30% are influenced	mainly influenced by children, if spouse absent
Delegation of responsibilities	are good at delegating; 57% concentrate mainly on planning	66% do everything, including staff training	no delegation; make all major decisions

Source: Adapted from Lavoie (1984)_a. These differentiations were made using multidimensional analysis and correlations.

Recent studies on female entrepreneurship suggest that these profiles are still valid. A few adjustments are required for the young woman entrepreneur, especially recent Quebec graduates who have been able to take part in the government's "Bourses d'affaires" program. She tends to be relatively younger, as mentioned earlier, and is much more active in the manufacturing sector, as a result of encouragement from this program. She tends to be single, but lives with a partner, and tends to have more employees. Her business volume is also much greater. These women stress the quality of work life and team work.

As no Canadian research has yet been done on women entrepreneurs in minority groups, it may well be that other types of women entrepreneurs will be identified when this area is explored. There are many businesswomen from the ethnic communities, but they have not yet had the opportunity to relate their recipes for success and their particular problems.

Professional development

Many women business owners regret not belonging to business and information networks, or not participating more in them. They would like to

sit on the boards of directors of other companies to a greater extent, belong to committees on which their male counterparts sit, and participate in trade missions in order to broaden their horizons. Women entrepreneurs complain that only their chambers of commerce and professional associations are presently able to inform them about the business world. If they are not recent graduates of a business, management, or engineering school, where future business contacts are made, information (especially from the government) reaches them too late to be of any use.²⁸

Many training courses have been designed for established and aspiring women entrepreneurs. These courses are usually given during the day in the cities and at universities.²⁹ Women with full-time jobs, as well as women who live far from a city or do not have the basic education to be accepted at a university level, are unable to take these courses, many of which are also quite expensive. As well, women entrepreneurs have little time to take such courses because most of them manage two businesses: their companies and their families.

But businesswomen are very satisfied with their profession. Lavoie (1984)_b reports that 96% of her respondents were happy with their decision to go into business and their choice of business sectors. If they had to do it again, 90% said they would probably make the same choices. About 70% said they would like to have had prior management training, and many would like to have taken courses, especially in accounting, finance, marketing, and exporting and international trade.

Strengths and weaknesses

Women business owners are motivated mainly by a desire for challenge and self-fulfilment. Aside from the attraction of financial independence, women are above all searching for something they do not find in the home. They all agree, however, that entrepreneurship is not for the faint of heart and that it takes great strength of character to succeed.

A summary of the main strengths and weaknesses of women entrepreneurs will be useful in identifying the measures required to satisfy women entrepreneurs' most urgent needs.

STRENGTHS

1. Women entrepreneurs tend to be younger.
2. They seem to like living as a couple and are glad to be able to run their business without unduly harming this relationship.
3. More and more spouses are participating in child-raising, but women still take on most of the responsibilities.
4. They tend to be better educated.
5. Half of them are from families with a history of entrepreneurship and appreciate this exposure to the business world.
6. Their management strengths lie in human resources, the quality of their management team, and their sales staff.
7. They often rely on an accountant as their greatest ally. They may also seek out the expertise of a lawyer or other business people in the community.
8. They feel they have the discipline, determination, and energy needed to make their businesses succeed.
9. They like their profession and are very happy with their decision to go into business.

WEAKNESSES

1. They are married under a contract of separate estates, and are therefore poorly protected if they are not major shareholders.
2. They must devote an average of 50 hours a week to their businesses and do not have much time for recreation.
3. They say they need to improve their knowledge and mastery of marketing, finance, accounting, and international trade.
4. They admit to weaknesses in advertising budgets, research and development, and capital assets. They would like to take courses on management and small business.
5. Day-to-day management takes up much of their time. They would like to spend more time on strategic management.
6. Governments are not very useful to them. Women entrepreneurs do not receive information or help in time as they are not well enough known or appreciated.
7. Few belong to a chamber of commerce. They do not know how to use these organizations to their advantage.
8. Professional development resources tend not to be designed for them and do not meet their need for specialized knowledge.

CONCLUSION

Needs to be met and desired initiatives

A look at the studies, activities, and initiatives devoted to entrepreneurship reveals just how little data exist in this field, especially for the western provinces. These data are generally insufficient to identify the problems of women owner-managers, co-proprietors, and "femmes collaboratrices". Because only shoestring budgets have been allocated to research on women entrepreneurs, it is difficult to measure the correlations that would provide the kind of information required. For instance, a woman entrepreneur's exact needs during the various stages of her firm's development is not known. These needs may relate to knowledge of various management areas, to certain skills, or to resources. The American government subsidizes ongoing research into entrepreneurship in an attempt to acquire data on a long-term basis.

Initiative 1: Obtain the funding and resources required for serious, coherent, longitudinal research on female entrepreneurship throughout Canada. Set up a national information centre on female entrepreneurship in order to develop and maintain a data bank containing recent, up-to-date information on businesswomen and their activities.

Because 20% of women entrepreneurs go into business after completing only elementary school, entrepreneurship could be taught at this level as well. In this way, women who are not motivated to continue their education would perhaps take interest and not leave school prematurely. Learning the basics of bookkeeping is no harder than learning algebra! A few schools have taken initiatives of this kind and have succeeded in generating new interest in entrepreneurship. Some financial institutions have even prepared several documents outlining the fundamentals of starting up a business.

Initiative 2: Urge governments and financial sponsors to produce documents and information designed for aspiring women entrepreneurs and elementary school children. They should also find ways to market their services more effectively to women and young people. Inform women about the sources of financing available to them and their businesses.

In 1986, Laval University in Quebec launched an innovative experiment in mass entrepreneurial education. Every weekend for one semester, the university took out a full page ad, in the newspaper *Le Devoir*, which explained the steps involved in planning a business. Readers interested in setting up their own businesses were invited to follow the guidelines given each week and submit a business plan at the end of the series. A \$25,000 grant was awarded to the person with the best business plan. This initiative was a great hit among young people — and even their parents. The Federal Business Development Bank, the YWCA of Montreal, and the ministère de l'Industrie et du Commerce of Quebec all offer courses on entrepreneurship that have been successfully taken by hundreds of women.

Initiative 3: Find mass means of teaching entrepreneurship other than the colleges and universities. Use television and phone-in radio shows to meet the needs of aspiring entrepreneurs.

Women entrepreneurs are often isolated, caught up in their companies and families. Business groups and associations that bring them together should be encouraged. This will give women the opportunity not only to exchange business cards, but also to talk over their strategies and unsolved problems. These women serve as models for younger women, but they are rarely mentioned in the newspapers, and the teaching material used in universities and colleges is so male-oriented that it only perpetuates stereotypes. Women who manage and are presidents of their own companies are seldom used as examples in the classroom. More books and articles on women should be published and advertisers should be encouraged to place women entrepreneurs in a more positive light. Also, events highlighting and celebrating women's outstanding contribution to the business world should be held.

Initiative 4: Allocate budgets to develop teaching materials (case studies, films) with greater emphasis on female entrepreneurship. Find ways to encourage the creation of women entrepreneur associations. Present model women entrepreneurs in the newspapers. Develop ways (medals, excellence awards) to publicly acknowledge the efforts and excellence of women entrepreneurs and the individuals and institutions that assist them.

On the whole, women business owners have lower incomes than their male counterparts; however, this holds true if only statistics comparing their business revenues are examined, without taking their capital investment into account. Because women start up their firms with very little capital, a better understanding of their companies' profitability could be obtained if their return on investment were calculated. No research has been done on this subject. We must find out how women entrepreneurs fare after five years in operation and how they respond to their companies' growth. Do they intentionally avoid expansion? Do they steer away from issuing public shares? What are the strategies implemented by successful entrepreneurs?

Initiative 5: Encourage universities, financial institutions, and governments to carry out longitudinal research on the evolution of women-owned businesses' rate of return, market share, and financial structure.

Certain Canadian business incubator projects³⁰ and university chairs in entrepreneurship are beginning to produce definite results. These milieus, however, have turned into male bastions as well, and very few women, if any, are invited to join the men entrepreneurs and managers who belong to these circles. But this is precisely the most promising area of entrepreneurship in the 1980s and women must be allowed to participate. Overall co-ordination of these activities is essential; joint studies and actions should be encouraged and carried out by the organizations concerned in order to avoid needless and costly duplication.

Initiative 6: Establish university chairs mandated to develop women entrepreneurship and business incubator projects. Ensure that existing government-subsidized chairs and entrepreneurial incubators commit part of their energies to the development of female entrepreneurship and ensure better co-ordination of these activities.

Incorporation fees represent a major problem for women. Many women will never be able to incorporate, and they are much more vulnerable than their male counterparts as a result of marriage contracts that, in certain circumstances, do not allow them to inherit the company in which they have worked so long. In many cases, incorporation would mean financial security and tax benefits that would help them make other important business decisions without undue worry. Some governments offer free financial consulting to entrepreneurs; why not do the same for legal services?

Initiative 7: Find ways to offer aspiring women entrepreneurs free or subsidized services relating to business incorporation and all other services required to start up their businesses effectively.

In 1984, the ministère de l'Industrie et du Commerce of Quebec set up the Direction de l'Entrepreneuriat au féminin within its structure. This directorate has greatly contributed to the development of female entrepreneurship with its studies, training activities, and sessions for businesswomen. As part of a ministry which is of vital importance to small business, the directorate is there to inform women about the ministry's services and to provide counselling assistance. It would be an excellent idea to set up similar bodies in government departments responsible for international trade. Women are showing increasing interest in export markets and every government trade mission abroad should include at least one businesswoman. Women should be given as many opportunities as men to penetrate foreign markets.

Initiative 8: Interest the provincial departments responsible for industry, trade, and export in organizing female entrepreneurship bureaus within their systems in order to encourage women to create businesses and to provide them with the support they need to develop their enterprises.

Many financial institutions still appear to be unaware of women's success in the business world. They should be brought up to date on the new kinds of businesswomen of the 1980s and be shown that women-owned businesses are increasingly a worthwhile risk.

Initiative 9: Continue to make bankers, accountants, lawyers, and consultants aware of the trust women entrepreneurs place in them and provide them with useful, up-to-date information on female entrepreneurship in Canada.

Existing data on Canadian women entrepreneurs are very incomplete; as a result, only a partial, preliminary, and tentative picture is provided here. Research should be undertaken across Canada to confirm and expand upon these findings, thus permitting the development of useful and coherent policies.

However, these sparse data do present an encouraging validation that entrepreneurship is an attractive option for Canadian women. Entrepreneurial education should begin in elementary schools. Colleges, universities, and other educational institutions would do well to design courses and educational materials to meet the continuing education needs of these enterprising women. As well, every Canadian university should establish a chair mandated to develop women entrepreneurship.

Governments, financial institutions, chambers of commerce, and similar organizations must improve their communication strategies to better reach and involve women entrepreneurs. The media should be encouraged to highlight these women's successes and their economic contribution to the country. As well, women entrepreneurs must be invited to participate in government trade missions abroad and to be party to strategic decisions. The die is cast. Women entrepreneurs are and will be essential if we are to build a stronger Canadian economy.

NOTES

1. See bibliography for complete references of all works cited in this study.
2. Canada, Revenue Canada, Taxation, *Taxation Statistics* (Ottawa: years 1975-1985), Table 12, years 1975-1979, and Table 11, years 1980-1985.
3. Ruth Rose-Lizée, *Portrait des femmes collaboratrices du Québec* (St. Lambert, Quebec: Association des femmes collaboratrices du Québec, 1984), p. 135. (See Table 1 also.)

It should be noted that the author considers "femmes collaboratrices" to be entrepreneurs — even those who do not officially hold any shares in their company — because if they are joint owners according to their marriage contract, they are entitled to half the property acquired during the marriage. Ruth Rose-Lizée notes that, in most cases, registered companies and shares in incorporated companies are considered common property and may therefore be divided up. *Ibid.*, p. 78. Although the Canadian Association of Women Business Owners requires that "femmes collaboratrices" own 25% of the company's shares or belong to a partnership to become members, much less demanding criteria are commonly used by the ministère de l'Industrie et du Commerce to describe minority shareholders, and an individual with only one share in a business is considered to be a minority shareholder. These are the criteria applied in this text.

4. Quebec, Ministère du Conseil exécutif, Secrétariat à la condition féminine, *The Economic Situation of Women in Quebec* (Quebec City: June 1985), p. 16, "Partenaires réelles — Décisions 1985".
5. Women for the Survival of Agriculture, *What Are You Worth? A Study of the Economic Contribution of Eastern Ontario Farm Women to the Family Farm Enterprise*, submitted to the Second National Farm Women's Conference, Charlottetown, Prince Edward Island, November 21-24, 1985, p. 22.
6. The results of several Canadian studies will be presented in various ways throughout this text to illustrate certain interpretations and their limitations. These studies were conducted by different authors with different goals in mind; as a result, authors often used different scales to present their findings. Although results will be paralleled in the same tables to facilitate comparison, several studies will be left out of certain tables because they do not provide data on a particular subject.

In order to avoid any hasty generalizations, the following is a brief description of each of the studies:

Maritime Provinces

Lois A. Stevenson, 1983 and 1984

Studies using a woman entrepreneur population (N=447) from three provinces, from which a stratified sample of women from various business sectors was drawn. These women all founded their own businesses. As much as possible, firms had to have been in business for one year, have a business volume of over \$10,000, and employ at least one person. Women entrepreneurs had to be majority shareholders and participate in the day-to-day management of the company.

Sample:	N=183
Nova Scotia	N=100
New Brunswick	N= 64
Prince Edward Island	N= 19

Methodology: questionnaire mailed out

Quebec

Several studies have been done in Quebec. In chronological order, they are:

Lavoie (1984)_a — "A New Era for Female Entrepreneurship in the 80's"

Study of a population of 250 women entrepreneurs from the Montreal area active in various business sectors. The women participating in the study had to have founded or purchased their business, either on their own or with a partner, and their firms had to have at least one employee.

Sample:	N=250
Mentor-assisted entrepreneurs	N=145
Young graduate entrepreneurs	N= 25
Social entrepreneurs	N= 80

Methodology: questionnaire completed during an interview

Lavoie (1984)_b — *Les femmes entrepreneures dans le domaine manufacturier au Québec*

Study of a group of 72 women entrepreneurs in the manufacturing sector from nine of the ten Quebec regions (i.e., all those who volunteered for the study). Women had to have founded or purchased their company, either on their own or with a partner, and have at least one employee.

Sample: N=72

Methodology: questionnaire and telephone interviews

Lavoie (1986)

A study of 16 young women entrepreneurs under age 28 from various regions in Quebec who had founded their own businesses, alone or with one or more partners, with the assistance of a \$25,000 loan from the Quebec government. (Not yet published.)

Sample: N=16

Methodology: meeting and interviewing during the "Forum international des jeunes et l'entrepreneuriat", Quebec City, December 1985, and analysis of monographs on each company, prepared for the forum.

MIC (1985)

Sample: 50 of the best-known women entrepreneurs from various business sectors in Quebec.

Methodology: long, structured interview with each respondent

MIC (1986)

Study of a large group of women entrepreneurs in the Quebec manufacturing sector.

Sample: 1,698 women entrepreneurs from Quebec's ten industrial regions

Methodology: questionnaire mailed out

Rose-Lizée (1984)

Study of 217 "femmes collaboratrices" from a few regions in Quebec (in order to concentrate data-collection efforts). Their companies did not have to have any employees, but the women had to have their say in the day-to-day management of the business. They did not have to officially hold any shares in the company. "Femmes collaboratrices" could not be independent workers.

Sample:

N=217

Agricultural sector

N=115

Professional sector

N= 8

Small business sector

N= 94

Methodology: questionnaire mailed out

Lee-Gosselin and Grisé (1986)

A study of 63 women owner-managers in the manufacturing sector of the Quebec City area. All respondents had to own at least 1% of their firm's shares. The number of entrepreneurs in each sector is not indicated.

Sample: N=63

Methodology: data collected by mailing out questionnaire

Ontario

Only two studies are known:

Collom (1982)

A study carried out for the Small Business Secretariat of the federal Department of Regional Industrial Expansion by Professor Frank Collom of Queen's University. The results of this study are summarized in Brenda Baird's report, *Canadian Women Owner/Managers*, a working paper (Ottawa: Department of Regional Industrial Expansion, Small Business Secretariat, 1982).

The women entrepreneurs were from southeastern Ontario and selected at random from various business sectors.

Sample:	N=236
Retailing	N=179
Services	N= 48
Other	N= 9

Methodology: data collected by mailing out questionnaire

White (1984)

Longitudinal study of entrepreneurs selected at random from various business sectors throughout Canada at the end of 1978. The companies were recontacted in 1983.

In 1978, the sample comprised new companies (no details as to definition). Unfortunately, only a short summary of the results of this research and very few details are available.

Sample:	1978	1983
Men	486	123
Women	1,364	644
Rejected	139	--
Total	1,989	767

Methodology: data collected by mailing out questionnaire

Manitoba

Suek et al. (1983)

A study carried out for the Manitoba Department of Labour and the Manitoba Department of Business Development and Tourism involving 100 entrepreneurs from various business sectors and regions. As the sample was made up of both men and women and there is no differentiation between men and women in the results, integrating this data with the other studies cited in the text was possible only in one or two places.

Sample: 55 women, 45 men

Methodology: questionnaire mailed out

Saskatchewan

Department of Tourism and Small Business (1986)

The author was unable to obtain this study but she discussed it with a Department official over the telephone. The results come from four studies done in the province on entrepreneurs in general that distinguish between men and women for only a few factors.

Sample: unknown

Methodology: most of the data was collected by mailing out questionnaire

British Columbia

B.C. Women's Programs (1986)

Study conducted by the Department of Labour involving 1,000 women entrepreneurs from various business sectors.

Sample: N=1,000

Methodology: data collected by mailing out questionnaire

It must be emphasized that although an increasing number of studies on women entrepreneurs are being done in Canada, examination of this topic is still at the data-gathering stage and several provinces, such as Alberta and Newfoundland, do not seem to have been studied so far.

The various tables drawn from these 13 studies are also very difficult to interpret, as they are based on the different scales used by the authors. They may be used to give an overview and make comparisons, but cannot be the basis for actual conclusions.

7. Quebec, Ministère de l'Industrie et du Commerce, Direction de la promotion des femmes entrepreneures, *Les dirigeantes d'entreprises manufacturières: une présence significative* (Quebec City: 1986), "Les femmes dans le monde des affaires".
8. Canada, Revenue Canada, Taxation, *Taxation Statistics* (Ottawa: years 1975-1985), Tables 11 and 12.
9. By extrapolation from Anita Millar's text, "A Study of Women Entrepreneurs in Canada", an unpublished document prepared for the Small Business Secretariat, Department of Regional Industrial Expansion, August 1986, p. 2.
10. Jerry White, "The Rise of Female Capitalism — Women as Entrepreneurs", *Business Quarterly*, vol. 49, no. 1, spring 1984.
11. See the list of associations in note 28.
12. The various research methodologies and scales used make interpretation of these results difficult. This table should be consulted only for an overview of the subject.

13. Canada, Revenue Canada, Taxation, *Taxation Statistics* (Ottawa: 1981), Table 12.
14. Ahmed Naciri, "Le financement des petites entreprises: mythe et réalité", in *La P.M.E. à l'ère entrepreneuriale*, 30th World Conference of the International Council for Small Business, Montreal, June 16-19, 1985, p. 143.
15. Jerry White, "The Rise of Female Capitalism — Women as Entrepreneurs", pp. 134-135.
16. Beverley Suek et al., *Minding Her Own Business: A Study on Self-Employment in Manitoba* (Winnipeg: Human Development Center of Winnipeg, 1983), p. 9.
17. "Bourses d'affaires", recently renamed "Nouveaux entrepreneurs", is a program set up in 1984 by the ministère de l'Industrie et du Commerce of Quebec to help university and college graduates get started in business and create their own companies. The ministry guarantees two thirds of a maximum loan of \$25,000 for five years and commits itself to paying 100% of the interest on loans the first year and 50% over the next two years. Repayments start the first year after the loan is granted and are spread out over a minimum period of four years. The program's objective was set at 5,000 grants over a three-year period.
18. Dina Lavoie, *Les femmes entrepreneures dans le domaine manufacturier au Québec*, speech, Symposium on Women Entrepreneurs, *L'Art de diriger une entreprise*, Montreal, November 1984, p. 7.
19. Ruth Rose-Lizée, *Portrait des femmes collaboratrices du Québec*, p. 111.
20. *Ibid*, p. 111.
21. This study indicates that only 33% of women in British Columbia obtain a post-secondary school diploma (p. 13).
22. After studying the man-of-the-month column in *Revue Commerce*, Prof. Jean-Marie Toulouse noted in *L'entrepreneurship au Québec* (Montreal: Les Presses HEC, 1979) that 40% of the entrepreneurs had studied at secondary school and that only 20% had "studied at a university level", p. 53.
23. *Ibid*, pp. 53-54.
24. This study involved a sample of only 30 entrepreneurs, including one woman.
25. Hélène Lee-Gosselin, a researcher at Laval University, mentioned this to the author during a discussion on the latest results of research into women entrepreneurs in the manufacturing sector of a certain Quebec region.
26. Brenda Baird, *Canadian Women Owner/Managers* (Ottawa: Department of Regional Economic Expansion, Small Business Secretariat, January 1982), p. 12.

27. Jean-Marie Toulouse, *Les réussites québécoises* (Montreal: Les Éditions Agences D'Arc Inc., 1982), p. 184.

28. There are many associations across Canada whose goal is to encourage female entrepreneurship or co-entrepreneurship. The following are quite well known:

Business and Professional Women's Clubs of British Columbia and Yukon (1930), Victoria, British Columbia.

Western Business Women's Association, Vancouver, British Columbia.

Women Skills, Burnaby, British Columbia.

Alberta Women's Secretariat, Edmonton, Alberta.

National Association of Women in Construction, Edmonton, Alberta.

Regina Women's Network Inc., Regina, Saskatchewan.

Saskatchewan Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Saskatoon, Saskatchewan.

Manitoba Women's Directorate, Winnipeg, Manitoba.

Ontario Women's Directorate, Toronto, Ontario.

Windsor Women's Incentive Centre, Windsor, Ontario.

Women for the Survival of Agriculture, Crysler, Ontario.

Women Like Me, Toronto, Ontario.

Women's Community Enterprises, London, Ontario.

Quebec Businesswomen's Association, Montreal, Quebec.

Association professionnelle des entrepreneurs au féminin, Montreal North, Quebec.

Comité de promotion des femmes d'affaires (Accès 51), Chambre de commerce de Montréal, Montreal, Quebec.

Association des femmes collaboratrices du Québec, St. Lambert, Quebec.

New Brunswick Women's Network, Fredericton, New Brunswick.

Women's Directorate, Fredericton, New Brunswick.

Patchwork Community Women's Resource Centre, Halifax, Nova Scotia.

Summerside Business and Professional Women's Club, Summerside, Prince Edward Island.

Women's Studies, Memorial University, St. John's, Newfoundland.

Business and Professional Women's Association, Yellowknife, Northwest Territories.

Victoria Faulkner Women's Centre, Whitehorse, Yukon.

29. The best known course in the provinces is, no doubt, the Federal Business Development Bank's "Women in Management". This two-day course has been given in Edmonton, Calgary, Saskatoon, Regina, Winnipeg, and Halifax. The aim of the course is to improve women's management skills. The Bank also offers mixed courses specially designed for entrepreneurs.

One course that seems to be popular in the Vancouver area is Simon Fraser University's "Foundation Program in Management for Women". This series of courses covers various subjects, such as organizational behaviour and strategic planning, and is composed of six three-day modules. The courses are non-credit.

In Burnaby, British Columbia, a course called "Co-operative Employment for Women" is regularly offered at Douglas College and is subsidized by Employment and Immigration Canada. The goal of the course is to teach women who have not held a paid job over the past 26 weeks how to start up and run their own cooperatives. Participants must attend nine modules totaling 68 days and work towards setting up their cooperatives for 62 days.

In Manitoba, the universities occasionally organize a "Winning Women Conference" to inform women about opportunities in entrepreneurship. The last conference was held in March 1986 at the University of Manitoba. Several consulting firms develop management programs for women, such as the Manitoba Institute of Management and the Human Development Center, both of Winnipeg.

In Quebec, the Direction de la promotion des femmes entrepreneures in the ministère de l'Industrie et du Commerce offers a series of courses for women entrepreneurs and aspiring women entrepreneurs. Over the last three years it has given about 50 courses and workshops throughout the province. Admission fees are usually under \$100.

Several consulting firms and women's associations, as well as the above-mentioned Direction de la promotion des femmes entrepreneures, occasionally offer courses. Admission fees are under \$100.

The YWCA of Montreal has run a series of courses for nearly eight years on business management problems. These courses are well designed and inexpensive.

The Association des femmes collaboratrices has offered its own business management program in every Quebec region for over ten years. These courses are not too expensive and are open to all members.

These and many other courses have no doubt helped make women more aware of the opportunities offered by female entrepreneurship.

30. A form of management whereby a business is at first guided by a group of advisers made up of academics and business people.

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